For Reference

NOT TO BE TAKEN FROM THIS ROOM

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

LINGUISTICS APPLIED TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of Graduate Studies

In Partial Fulfillment

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Master of Arts

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By

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The undersigned hereby certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Linguistics Applied To Foreign Language Teaching" submitted by Karen Freda Hansen in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

ABSTRACT

The effective role which linguistics can play in language teaching first came to attention during the Second World War with the success of the U.S. Army Specialized Training Program. Under this program, a student attained a high degree of fluency in a foreign language within a period of nine months. After the war, several features of the ASTP, described in Chapter I, were incorporated into high school and university language programs.

In contrast to the traditional or grammar method which emphasizes reading and translation, the linguistic approach stresses the primacy of speech in foreign language study. The students learn to speak the new language through intensive oral drill of the basic patterns of the language while imitating the instructor's pronunciation. These basic patterns are established by an analysis of the phonological, grammatical, and vocabulary systems of the language under study. The basic analytical techniques and general methodology of the linguistic approach are outlined in Chapters II and III of this study.

In the fall of 1959, a modified form of the ASTP approach was introduced into an elementary German

course, German 100, at the University of Alberta. There were eighteen undergraduate students in this experimental class, which the writer attended as an observer; the instructor was a trained linguist and a native German speaker. Chapter IV is devoted to a description of the procedures followed by the instructor in German 100.

On the basis of a comparison between the achievements shown by these students in speaking, reading, and writing German and her own experiences in foreign language learning, the writer suggests in the final chapter that an approach to language teaching based on sound linguistic principles is superior in its accomplishments to the traditional method and should be introduced wherever possible.

PREFACE

As one of the youngest sciences, linguistics has for some time made considerable contributions to such different fields as anthropology, speech therapy, philosophy, and communication engineering as well as to our knowledge about language itself. But not until fairly recently did linguists become seriously interested in the problems of language teaching; it is less than a decade since real rapport was established between linguists and modern language teachers.

Two significant, and related, results emerged from this new relationship: one, the recognition that a knowledge of linguistics is of great value to the language teacher, and, two, that modern language courses and the texts used in them would benefit greatly from the application of sound linguistic principles.

These observations are gradually being accepted by an increasing number of language teachers who are now taking courses in linguistics--some at the University of Alberta's Summer School of Linguistics--and who are transferring their theoretical knowledge to the practical requirements of the classroom.

Although a few modern language text books based on linguistic analysis and reflecting linguistically sound

procedures have been published within the last two
years, the methodological aspects of the problem have
not yet been dealt with adequately.

The writer of the present study does not presume
to fill this gap. However, when it became known
during 1959 that the Department of Modern Languages
at the University of Alberta would offer in the fall of
that year an elementary German course in which
linguistic principles would be applied, it was felt
that here might be a good opportunity to set down the
procedures followed by the instructor and to assess
the achievements of the students. The basic techniques
of linguistic analysis and the general methodology on
which the course is based are discussed in the chapters
preceding the description and evaluation of German 100.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Historical Background

For centuries, the purpose of the study of the classical languages was considered to be intellectual discipline. When modern languages began to appear in school and university curricula, educators determined that their study should serve a like purpose. Thus, the aims of modern language study as agreed upon by the Modern Language Association at its formation in 1883 were the attainment of "literary culture, philological scholarship, and linguistic discipline."[1] In order to achieve these aims, the traditional or grammar method used in the teaching of the classical languages was transferred without significant modification to the teaching of modern languages.

The grammar method had its origins in the Art of Grammar, written in the first century B.C. by the Greek scholar Dionysius Thrax.[2] Thrax's study of language,

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[1] William R. Parker, The National Interests and Foreign Languages (Washington, 1954), p. 75, as quoted by R.A. Lambert in "An Experimental Comparison of Two Methods of Teaching French to Non-French Students at the Grade Ten Level" (Edmonton, 1959), p. 5.

[2] Karl W. Dykema, "Historical Development of the Concept of Grammatical Properties," Readings in Applied English Linguistics, ed. H.B. Allen (New York, 1958), p. 7.

based largely on concepts of logic, dealt solely with
the analysis of Greek. In philosophical terms he
defined grammar and its functions, defined the eight
parts of speech, and dealt with accent, punctuation,
sounds, and syllables. Roman scholars later used Thrax's
work as a model for Latin grammars which in turn were
used by the grammarians of the Middle Ages as the bases
for describing the modern European languages. Thus,
the grammatical terms and classifications introduced by
Thrax came to be widely accepted and, though modified,
are still found in today's traditional grammars.

However, attempting to make the description of
one language fit the grammatical pattern of another is
bound to lead to distortions and inaccuracies. Since
classical Greek and modern English are both Indo-
European languages, it is quite conceivable that they
have some similarities, but their number is limited,
and many differences do exist. Thus, it is inaccurate
to say, as some teachers of English grammar still do,
that to him is an example of the dative case because
the relationship indicated by this form is expressed in
classical Greek by the dative case, which, incidentally,
has also disappeared from modern Greek.

The traditional grammars of modern languages are
used in courses which emphasize reading and translation,
the objectives of the courses in classical Greek, Hebrew,
and Latin. In order to achieve these objectives, the

student is required to memorize innumerable rules of
grammar, endless lists of paradigms and of isolated
lexical items, and to read, translate, and even compose
the foreign language by the application of this rote
knowledge. In Schinnerer's Beginning German, a text
still widely used, the second lesson is devoted to the
declension of the definite article, the dieser and kein
words, and by the seventh lesson the student is expected
to know from memory the declensions of the strong nouns
and of the strong and weak verbs in the six tenses of
the indicative mood.[3] Chiles and Wiehr[4] and many other
textbooks are constructed along a similar plan. When
the use of certain words is illustrated by giving them
in complete sentences, these sentences are often so
constructed that their application in real-life
situations is very limited, if possible at all. In one
German reader, for example, the question Wo seid ihr?
is answered by Wir sind nicht hier![5] Often in an
attempt to show the relationship between verb tenses
in two languages, artificial sentences which violate

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[3] Otto Schinnerer, Beginning German (New York, 1935).
An alternate edition with different exercises was pub-
lished in 1941, and a revised edition which appeared in
1956 was in its third printing in 1957.

[4] James A. Chiles and Josef Wiehr, First Book in
German (Boston, 1942).

[5] Quoted by Otto Jespersen in How to Teach a Foreign
Language, trans. Sophia Bertelsen (London, 1952), p. 13.

the form pattern of the language are given as examples,
for instance, <u>I had been sick all last year</u>. Though
perhaps overstated, there is some truth in Jespersen's
observation:

> ...The raison d'être of each sentence lies
> merely in its value for the grammatical
> exercises, so that by reading schoolbooks
> one often gets the impression that Frenchmen
> must be strictly systematical beings, who
> one day speak merely in futures, another day
> in passé définis, and who say the most discon-
> nected things only for the sake of being able
> to use all the persons in the tense which for
> the time being happens to be the subject for
> conversation, while they carefully postpone
> the use of the subjunctive until next year. [6]

Many criticisms in addition to those cited have
been and are now being levelled at the traditional
method of language teaching. The number of hours of
class instruction, usually about three per week, is
considered inadequate and the reliance on written
home assignments too great. The view that language
teaching is simply the imparting and application of a
set of facts about a language has been rejected, and
the ability to translate a foreign-language text into
English or even to translate an English text into
the second language is no longer regarded as an ade-
quate test of a student's understanding of and
competence in the target language. Finally, the almost
exclusive use in the classroom of the students' native

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[6] Jespersen, pp. 17f.

language has been attacked and greater stress placed on the use of the language to be learned.

Despite such shortcomings, this type of instruction was accepted by language teachers because they felt that reading was the only objective which could be attained in the two or three years normally devoted to foreign-language study in the high school, college, or university. Although it is now recognized that this view is unfounded, the result was that, frequently, a university graduate with several language courses to his credit was adequately prepared to tackle philological problems but lacked the proficiency to enable him to engage in a conversation with a native speaker.

Early in this century, a small group of linguists agreed that the objectives of learning a foreign language should be the same as for learning one's native language. That is, emphasis should be placed on communication between speakers and not on the appreciation of works of literature or on the reading of scholarly articles. These scholars introduced a new approach to language teaching, the linguistic approach, based on the scientific study of language which developed in the nineteenth century after the example of Panini's purely descriptive grammar of Sanscrit written in the fourth century B.C. The keynote of this approach is

language as it is spoken, not as it was spoken or as it "should be" spoken. Franz Boas, an eminent American anthropologist, incorporated this new concept into the teaching of American Indian languages which have no written tradition and which present complex phonetic and grammatical systems. Boas taught his students a method of language learning that was inductive and empirical, based on work with a native informant. He stressed that each language should be treated as a separate and complete system of communication[7] which could be described better without any preexistent scheme of what a language must be than with the usual reliance upon Latin as the model.[8]

Because of Boas's outstanding success in teaching American Indian languages, several of his followers attempted to apply some of his methods to the teaching of the better known European languages. One of the most prominent of these was Leonard Bloomfield, a specialist in the field of Germanic studies. In An Introduction to the Study of Language, published in 1914, Bloomfield outlined some of the features which are desirable in an elementary language course. Firstly,

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[7] Mary Haas, "The Application of Linguistics to Language Teaching," Anthropology Today, ed. A.L. Kroeber (Chicago, 1953), p. 808.

[8] Martin Joos, ed., Readings in Linguistics (Washington, 1957), p. v.

the teacher should have a knowledge of the language to
be taught comparable to that of an educated native
speaker. The pupil should be trained first of all to
articulate the foreign sounds correctly and without
difficulty or hesitation, and the very first examples
of these newly-acquired sounds should be sought in
characteristic words and phrases, such as greetings,
rather than in isolated words. The order of introduction
of material should be such that new material can be
explained in terms of what has already been learned
and should then be drilled until it has been thoroughly
assimilated. Translation into the pupil's native language
or other explicatory use of it should be avoided as
much as possible. Finally, the course should consist
of eight hours a week of classwork during the first
year or two since most of the work is oral and must be
done in the classroom.[9]

Unfortunately, most of Bloomfield's suggestions
went unheeded until the Army Specialized Training
Program was established during the early years of
World War II. Because of the inherent lack of interest
in foreign-language study in pre-war America, there was
a great shortage of people with a working knowledge of
the languages of the areas where the American armed

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[9] Leonard Bloomfield, An Introduction to the Study
of Language (New York, 1914), pp. 297-301.

forces would be operating. In order to meet the need
for such people, the special program was introduced
with the following objective:

> ...to impart to the trainee a command of
> the colloquial <u>spoken</u> form of the language.
> This command includes the ability to speak
> the language fluently, accurately, and with
> an acceptable approximation to a native
> pronunciation. It also implied that the
> student will have a practically perfect
> auditory comprehension of the language as
> spoken by natives. Experience has shown that
> with the proper methodology the objective
> can be achieved in six to nine months. [10]

Under the program, which was based on the Intensive
Language Program which the American Council of Learned
Societies had originated two years previously, twenty-
six languages, including many such as Swahili, Kurdish,
and Pidgin English, for which no teaching materials were
available, were taught at forty-four universities. In
order to have some uniformity in the methods employed
in teaching these various languages, the Linguistic
Society of America published two manuals designed to
introduce the informant method of language learning to
students and teachers. Bloomfield's <u>Outline Guide for
the Practical Study of Foreign Languages</u> explains how
to go about eliciting information from the informant
and how to record it and emphasizes the necessity of

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[10] Frederick B. Agard and others, <u>A Survey of
Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training
Program</u> (New York, 1944), p. 4.

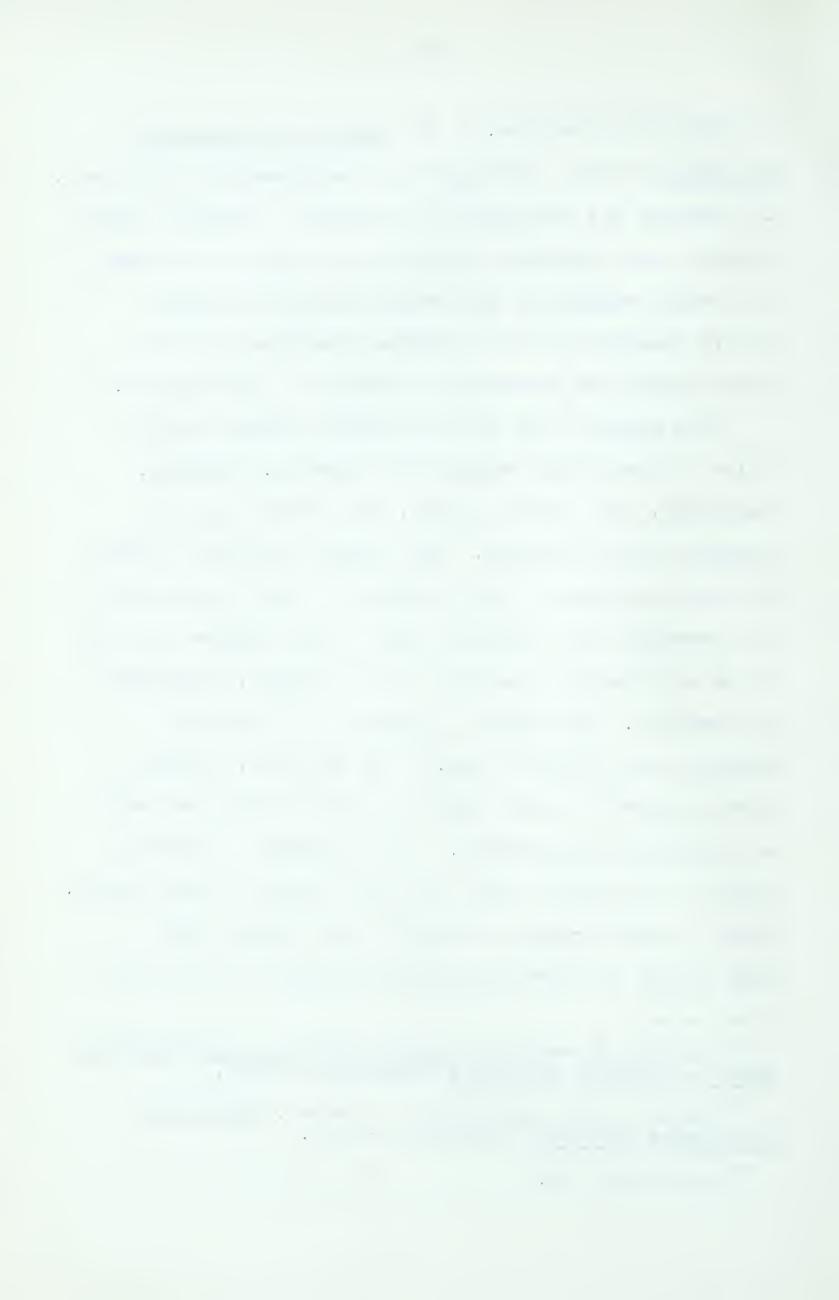imitation and practice.[11] The Outline of Linguistic
Analysis by Bloch and Trager is a supplement to the above.
It presents the techniques of phonetic, phonemic, morpho-
logical, and syntactic analysis necessary for learning
a foreign language by gathering information from a
native speaker and then arriving inductively at the
phonological and grammatical systems of his language.[12]

The general plan of the program proposed twelve
hours of area study dealing with customs, religion,
geography, and similar topics, and fifteen hours of
language study per week. The latter consisted of three
one-hour lectures on the structure of the language and
six two-hour drill sessions with a drill master who was
to be a colloquial speaker of the language, preferably
native-born. The number of students in the drill
session was limited to ten.[13] In addition, students
were expected to spend twenty to thirty hours per week
on individual preparation. This amounted to spending
eight to ten hours a day, six days a week on one subject.
Thus, an ASTP trainee learned in nine months what a
high school or university student learned in six years

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[11] Leonard Bloomfield, Outline Guide for the Practical
Study of Foreign Languages (Baltimore, 1942).

[12] Bernard Bloch and George L. Trager, Outline of
Linguistic Analysis (Baltimore, 1942).

[13] Agard, pp. 4f.

of language instruction.

Although the Intensive Course of the Army Specialized Training Program proved very successful, it was found impractical to incorporate it as such into the high school or university curriculum, mainly because of the large time-allotment, the small size of the classes and, consequently, the large staff required. Moreover, the Army program was composed of groups of rigidly selected students having a demonstrated proficiency for language learning and a motivation not likely to be found among students in our high schools or even universities.

Nevertheless, the great value of the ASTP method was recognized by language teachers at all levels, and it served to attract attention to the sound linguistic principles on which it was based. Since the end of the war, various modified ASTP courses, some quite far removed from the original model, have been established in an attempt to meet the requirements of foreign language courses at the high school and university level. The following study is an examination of the principles, the methods, and the achievements of one such ASTP modification applied to a first-year German course in the Department of Modern Languages at the University of Alberta.

CHAPTER II

ANALYSIS OF PROBLEMS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Generally, foreign-language teaching involves teaching a specific foreign language to students of a specific native language background, and the problems encountered in language learning will be different for students of different linguistic backgrounds. That is, the difficulties of an English-speaking student learning German are not the same as those of a French student who is also studying German. By preparing a brief descriptive comparison of the student's native language and of the target language, the instructor will be able to anticipate--and solve--most of these difficulties. A consideration of the basic structural elements of a language is therefore important to our understanding of the problems of language learning and of the method suggested for their solution.

A. Phonology

1. Segmental Phonemes

The most obvious problem is that of pronunciation, and the production of sounds which do not occur in the student's native language proves to be the first obstacle. Whereas the total number of sounds and sound combinations used in a given language is limited, the

total number of sounds which we are physiologically capable of producing is practically infinite. Thus, any noise occurring in any language as a speech sound or as a gesture sound (such as the voiceless alveo-palatal click [ṭ>], usually represented by tsk tsk, which in English usually signifies disapproval) lies within the range of reproduction of any normal human.

Because of the differences of the phonetic system, an English-speaking student will find it difficult both to hear and to pronounce the [y] of the German Hüte or müde, and he will usually substitute the nearest English equivalent, [u] as in English hoot. A French-speaking student on the other hand will not find this sound difficult as he has an identical sound in lune or plume.

Many students of German will also have difficulty in distinguishing between tense vowels and lax vowels, illustrated by the following pairs of minimal contrast, because their own language may not recognize this distinction. The tense vowels are indicated by the symbol [·]:

/i·n/	"him"	/in/	"in"
/de·n/	"the"	/den/	"then"
/ka·m/	"came"	/kam/	"comb"
/mu·s/	"jam"	/must/	"must"

In the foregoing examples, the tense vowels have the phonetic values [i,e,a,u] respectively, while the lax vowels have the phonetic values [ɪ,ɛ,a,ʊ] respectively.

There are also several minimal pairs involving words with a tense vowel, where one word of the pair includes a tense vowel plus a phoneme of length [:] while the other tense vowel is short:

/fli:st/	"flee"	/fli·st/	"flows"
/ru:t/	"rests"	/ru·t/	"Ruth"
/mü:t/	"makes an effort"	/mü·t/	"tired"

The [k] of <u>keep</u> and the [k̦] of <u>cool</u> are not phonemically distinctive in English. That is, there is no pair of English words whose difference in meaning depends solely on the difference between these two sounds; thus, our ears are not trained to hear the difference between the two varieties of this phoneme or minimum unit of distincitve sound feature. Eskimo, however, has an unvoiced velar stop [k] and an unvoiced back velar stop [k̦] which are as different to the Eskimo ear as [t] and [d] are to an English speaker. This is illustrated by the minimal pair [kauk] "walrus hide" and [k̦auk̦] "forehead." The English student will have to listen very attentively at first in order to distinguish the two phonemes when an Eskimo is speaking. Conversely, the difference between [p] and [b] in English constitutes a problem for an Eskimo since in his language these are allophones of the same phoneme.

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1 Hugo Mueller, "Length as a Phoneme in the German Vowel System," <u>Journal of the Canadian Linguistic Association</u>, IV, No. 1 (Spring, 1958), 35-37.

A problem, not so obvious as the one mentioned above but equally important, arises when certain sounds in one language are phonemically similar but phonetically different from sounds in another language. Thus, the English-speaking student of French may never be aware that English initial [tʰ] and French initial [t̪] are not identical. When we compare the two phonemes, we find two major differences: firstly, the [t̪] as in French tirer is post-dental, whereas [tʰ] in English tear is alveolar; secondly, the French consonant is not followed by a marked breath release before the following vowel but is more like the [t] in English steak. English initial [tʰ], on the other hand, is quite strongly aspirated.

Similarly, the Canadian or American English speaker often has a great deal of difficulty changing from the velar [l] and the strongly retroflexed [R] to the post-dental [l] or alveolar [l] and the alveolar [r] or uvular [r] common in many European languages.

Other problems may be caused by the distribution of phonemes. The affricate [ts] which is a single phoneme in German and which often occurs initially, for example, in Zeit or Zug, is a phoneme sequence in English which can occur only finally, as in hats, or across juncture, as in catsup.

By comparing the phonemic systems of the native

and target languages, the instructor will be able to
see which phonemes will be entirely new, which are
similar, and which, if any, are identical, and he will
be able to prepare pronunciation exercises accordingly.

2. Suprasegmental Phonemes

Of the greatest importance in foreign-language
teaching but often completely ignored in the traditional
grammars are the suprasegmental features of stress,
juncture, and either intonation or tone. If recognized
at all, they are frequently dismissed with the inference
that the student can "pick up" these features as he
progresses. However, failure to master these aspects of
a new language is the surest mark of a foreign speaker.[2]

STRESS. Two languages may have stress systems which are
deceptively similar. For instance, both English and
German have four levels of stress commonly referred to
as primary [/], secondary [∧], tertiary [\], and
weak [‿], and they have many stress arrangements in
common, as in streetcar and Bahnhof where both words
have a primary-tertiary sequence. But, in a sentence
like Long Island is a long island, English uses a
sequence of tertiary and primary stress on Long Island
to indicate that it is a unit, and the adjective long

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[2] William E. Welmers, Spoken English as a Foreign
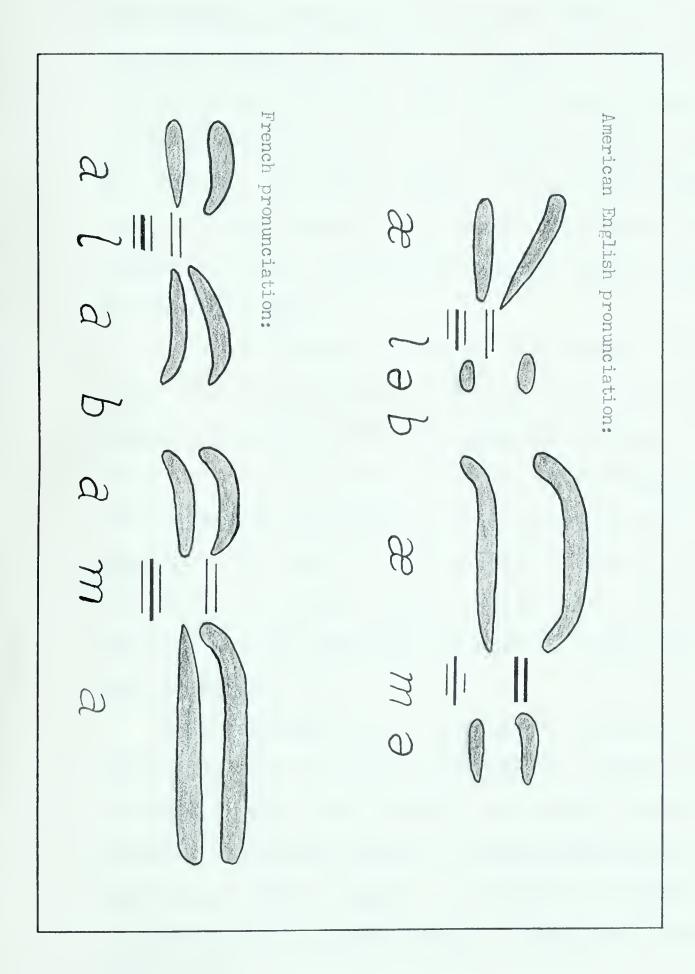Language (Washington, 1953), p. 16.

has secondary stress. German reverses this arrangement: in <u>Die Nȇue Zéitung ist eine nèue Zéitung</u>, the unit <u>Neue Zeitung</u> has a sequence of secondary and primary stress. At first glance this may seem quite unimportant, but if the German pattern is projected onto the English sentence, the resulting sentence becomes meaningless to the English listener, <u>Lȏng Ísland is a lòng ísland</u>, and vice versa.[3]

On the other hand, there is no such apparent similarity between French and English. French is said to be syllable-timed; the final syllable carries the heaviest stress and the unaccented syllables are of near-equal length. English is said to be stress-timed; the syllable with the heaviest stress shows the greatest length, while the length of the other syllables depends on whether they have secondary, tertiary, or weak stress. This difference is illustrated by a spectrogram[4] of the word ALABAMA with American English pronunciation and French pronunciation:

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[3] Henry Lee Smith, <u>Linguistic Science and the Teaching of English</u> (Cambridge, 1956), p. 41.

[4] Pierre Delatre, "Some Suggestions for Teaching Methods Arising from Research on the Acoustic Analysis and Synthesis of Speech," <u>Report of the Third Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Teaching</u> (Washington, 1952), p. 40.

American English pronunciation:

æ l ə b æ m ə

French pronunciation:

a l a b a m a

Spectrogram of the Word ALABAMA

JUNCTURE. The disparity between aural and reading
comprehension frequently encountered among foreign-
language students can often be traced to difficulties
in perceiving juncture. The written word is easily
distinguished because it is bounded on either side
by a space. In speech, however, we do not necessarily
indicate these spaces by corresponding pauses, but
rather, we tend to run words together into a whole
phrase or sentence.

In some languages juncture is phonemic. In English
it is used to differentiate between pairs such as
an aim and a name, and night rate and nitrate. Juncture
is not phonemic in French, and pairs like les zones
and les aunes are identical when spoken because of the
liaison. Even some uneducated French speakers have
difficulty dividing a spoken phrase into words, for
example, writing vin soud pin edlè for vingt sous de
pain et de lait.[5]

Some languages have a consistent system for
signalling word boundaries: Polish has constant pen-
ultimate stress, while Czech has constant initial
stress. The distribution of certain phonemes may also
function as such a signal. In German, an initial vowel
is preceded by a glottal stop. In English, the phoneme

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[5] Paul Passy, Petite Phonétique comparée (Berlin,
1922), p. 22.

/h/ must be either initial or medial, while /ɦ/ occurs
only medially or finally.

INTONATION. Intonation, the distribution of pitch
over phrases or sentences, is the first pattern of
language that a child learns, yet in foreign language
teaching it is often completely overlooked. Intonation
must be taught as an essential part of a language, for
a mistake in intonation is as jarring on the ear of
the native speaker as a mistake in pronunciation or in
the choice of a verb tense.[6]

Different languages may assign different meanings
to similar intonational patterns. The German and French
expressions nicht wahr and n'est-ce pas are equivalent
to the English isn't it, all being used to turn a
statement into a question: Das ist schön, nicht wahr?,
C'est beau, n'est-ce pas?, It's nice, isn't it? The
pitch pattern of the German and French expressions is
mid-high (2-3), while that of the English phrase is
high-low (3-1). A German student will tend automatically
to transfer the mid-high pattern to the English phrase,
thus altering its meaning. Isn't it indicates simply
a conversational style which does not necessarily
require an answer; on the other hand, isn't it indicates
that the speaker is in doubt and is asking the listener

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[6] Welmers, p. 16.

to help make the decision: <u>It's a good bargain,</u>
<u>isn't it?</u> The English high-low pattern superimposed
on the German phrase, giving <u>nicht wahr</u>, results in a

(above nicht wahr: 3 over "nicht", / over "wahr")

phrase that simply is not German.

The pitch contour of an English declarative
sentence is mid-high-low, a pattern which signals a
question or an emphatic remark in Spanish. Spanish
matter-of-fact statements are normally spoken with a
low-mid-low intonational pattern:

       2   3   /
      I'm going home.

      2   3 /
      ¿Como esta usted?

      /   2 /
      Voy a casa.

In the Spanish declarative sentence, the highest level
of pitch, in this case mid, is on the first stressed
syllable. In the English statement, the highest pitch
level is on the last stressed syllable.[7] If the
English sentence were expanded to <u>I'm going home now</u>,
the low pitch would fall on <u>now</u> unless the time element
rather than the place is emphasized, in which case the
high pitch would fall on <u>now</u>:

      2   3   /
      I'm going home now. (Emphasis on <u>home</u>)

      2   3 /
      I'm going home now. (Emphasis on <u>now</u>)

TONE. For speakers of intonational languages, as
illustrated above, special problems exist with regard

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[7] Robert Lado, <u>Linguistics Across Cultures</u>
(Ann Arbor, 1957), p. 44.

to learning a tone language in which a constant or fixed pitch is distributed over the morphemes, minimum significant units of meaning, or words. This pitch, moreover, serves to differentiate between meanings of lexical items. Mandarin Chinese, for instance, has four contours of pitch: level [-], rising [/], falling-rising [∨], and falling [\], and the same arrangement of segmental phonemes can have four different meanings, depending on the pitch. For example:

[mā] means mother

[má]   "   hemp

[mǎ]   "   horse

[mà]   "   scold [8]

For the English student it will be a real problem to remember the correct pitch for each word, and, inversely, the Chinese student learning English, or another intonational language, will be confused because the pitch of the words seems to change constantly without changing the meaning of the words.

B. Grammar

The task of comparing the phonemic systems of two languages, particularly the systems of segmental phonemes, does not usually prove to be too difficult. The grammatical system of any language, however, is

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[8] Dean Pittman, Practical Linguistics (Cleveland, 1948), p. 45.

much more complex than its phonemic system, and this type of comparison entails much more work. Concerning the grammatical system, Hockett says:

> The grammatical core [which includes the part-of-speech system, the grammatical categories, the construction types] plays an important role in effective foreign-language teaching. Apart from pronunciation and morphophonemic difficulties...the chief obstacle to the mastery of a foreign language is the difference between its grammatical core and that of the learner's own language. The main reason for the customary restriction of vocabulary in elementary foreign-language-learning materials is not that vocabulary is itself hard--indeed, vocabulary is certainly the easiest phase of a foreign language to learn. The reason is rather that there is no point in learning large numbers of [words] until one knows what to do with them. After the grammatical core has been mastered, the acquisition of new vocabulary hardly requires formal instruction. It can be done by reading or speaking the language. [9]

1. The Part-of-Speech System

No two languages will have identical part-of-speech systems, but many languages will have similar basic features. Latin can be described as having a tripartite system consisting of:

(1) Stems inflected for case (nouns, broadly

speaking)

Stems inflected for gender (adjectives)

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[9] Charles Hockett, A Course in Modern Linguistics (New York, 1958), p. 266.

(2) Stems having inflected forms which show person
and number of the subject (verbs)

Stems inflected for voice

Stems not inflected for voice

(3) Uninflected stems (particles: prepositions,
adverbs, conjunctions, interjections)[10]

This is the general plan which the Romance languages
follow. French differs mainly in that nouns are not
inflected for case, and there is no inflected passive
form of the verb. German has a part-of-speech system
quite similar to the Latin system.

English has a multipartite part-of-speech system;
in some cases, a single English stem can be used where
three different Latin stems would be required. For
example, fancy can be used as a noun in He has taken
a fancy to it, as an adjective in a fancy hat, or as a
verb in Fancy that. In these examples, the stem fancy
performs three different functions without changing
its shape.

2. Grammatical Categories

The analysis of the part-of-speech system is
achieved through an examination of the grammatical
categories of the language or languages involved.
These include the categories of gender, number, person,
case, possession, subject and object reference, and

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10 Hockett, p. 221.

tense, aspect, and mode.

GENDER. English does not have a grammatical category for gender, whereas French nouns are classed as either masculine or feminine. Both German and Russian have three-gender systems consisting of masculine, feminine, and neuter stems. The French and German systems are examples of classification by congruence; that is, there is nothing in the classified word itself to indicate to which gender it belongs, but the gender is apparent in the attributive words. Thus, French has le crayon, la plume, and German has der Löffel, die Gabel, das Messer. The gender classifications in German are found only in the singular, the plural having a common gender. In Russian and Spanish, the gender of a noun is indicated by the ending of the word itself, with some exceptions. For example, in Russian, nouns ending in a consonant or -ĭ are masculine, those ending in -a or -ä are feminine, and nouns ending in -o or -e are neuter.

In many American Indian languages, such as Cree, gender is not more or less arbitrarily or historically determined and equally arbitrarily designated as masculine, feminine, neuter, but rather, nouns are classed as being either animate (which includes humans, animals, and spirits) or inanimate. The gender classification, which is apparent in the plural form of the noun, determines whether the noun will be the subject

of an animate or of an inanimate verb. In Cree, the word /mistatimwok/ with the animate plural suffix /-ok/ means "horses"; /mokkumâna/ with the inanimate plural suffix /-a/ means "knives."

NUMBER. Two classifications for number, singular and plural, are common. In German, as in French and Russian, adjectives agree in number with the governing noun, for example, der braune Tisch, die braunen Tische. English adjectives are invariable except for two exceptions: this-these and that-those.

Eskimo, like Greek, has three classifications for number--single, dual, and plural: /nuna/ "one land," /nunak/ "two lands," /nunat/ "three or more lands." This distinction is also made in the pronouns: /uvaŋa/ "I," /uvaguk/ "we (two)," and /uvagut/ "we (three)."

PERSON. There are usually three categories for person in both singular and plural: the person(s) speaking (first person), the person(s) spoken to (second person), and the person(s) about whom something is being said (third person). Eskimo has a further category, fourth person, which is used when a second "third person" is brought into the conversation. For example, in /qaigami tilivara/ "Because she comes, I send him," the suffix /-gami/ is a fourth person singular intransitive form in the causative mood, while the suffix /-vara/ is a

third person singular transitive form signalling an
"I-him" relationship in the indicative mood.

Some American Indian languages also make a dis-
tinction between "we exclusive" and "we inclusive";
the former excludes the listener(s), while the latter
form includes him(them).

CASE. Certain inflectional forms are used primarily
to signal the place of the word in the syntactic
structure. These are the case endings. German nouns,
articles, and adjectives are inflected for four cases:
nominative das grosse Land, genitive des grossen Land(e)s,
dative dem grossen Land(e), and accusative das grosse
Land. In addition to these four cases Russian has
an instrumental case and a prepositional case. Eskimo
also has six cases, which, however, are different in
nature from the cases in most Indo-European languages:

place	/iklumi/	"in the igloo"
manner	/takuvuŋa iklumik/	"I see the igloo."
distance	/anivuŋa iklumit/	"I leave the igloo."
direction	/iklumut/	"toward the igloo"
passage	/qaivuŋa umiaqkut/	"I come by boat."
similitude	/inuinaqtut/	"like an Eskimo"

POSSESSION. In many languages, possession is expressed
by syntactic rather than morphological forms: my knife,
mein Messer, for instance. In Eskimo, however, inflectional

forms indicate who is the owner of the noun object:
/uluga/ "my knife," /uluŋa/ "his or her knife."

SUBJECT AND OBJECT REFERENCE. In German and Russian,
verbs are inflected to show the person and number of the
subject. In English, on the other hand, the verb has
an inflectional ending in the third person of the
singular only, for example, walk, walks. Eskimo verbs
may be inflected to show the subject of intransitive
verbs or the subject as well as the object of transitive
verbs: /nakligivuŋa/ "I love" (intransitive), /nakli-
givara/ "I love him" (transitive).

TENSE, ASPECT, MODE. Tenses show the different locations
of an event in time: present, past, or future.[11] German
has inflected forms for only the present and past
tenses and uses a verb phrase to indicate future tense:
ich sehe, ich sah, ich werde sehen. French has inflected
forms for the future, je chanterai, but the simple past
is expressed by a verb phrase, j'ai chanté.

Aspect concerns the temporal distribution of time.[12]
Almost all Russian verbs are of either the imperfective
or the perfective aspect. The imperfective aspect,
which appears in the present, past, and future tenses,
indicates a continuous, repeated, or habitual action,

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[11] Hockett, p. 237.

[12] Hockett, p. 237.

for example, ä pišu "I am writing," or "I am in the
habit of writing." The perfective aspect has a past
form and a future form but no present. The use of the
perfective aspect indicates that the action is completed
or to be completed: včera ä napisal "Yesterday I
wrote," and zavtra ä napišu "Tomorrow I shall write"
(completing the action). The Russian verbs of motion
have two forms of the imperfective aspect. The deter-
minate form indicates that the action is in the process
of being carried out: ä idu v školu "I am on my way to
school." The indeterminate form indicates that the
action is habitual: ä xožu v školu "I usually go to
school" meaning "I attend school."

Modes show differing degrees of reality, desira-
bility, or contingency of an event.[13] German has
three modes, the well-known indicative, imperative,
and subjunctive.

3. Construction Types

Every language has a widely used form of expression
known as the favourite sentence type; in many of the
Indo-European languages, this favourite sentence type
takes the form of an actor-action relationship, such
as je vais, ich gehe, and so on. Russian has a construction
type in which the verb form is missing, on doma "He
[is] at home," and an impersonal type of construction

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[13] Hockett, p. 237.

which contains neither an actor nor a verb form, for example, mne xolodno "[It is] cold to me."

English and French have three types of interrogative constructions (apart from the type which uses inflection of the voice as a signal), whereas German has two. All three languages use the inversion type: Avez-vous un crayon? Haben Sie einen Bleistift? Have you a pencil? In a second construction common to the three languages, a statement is turned into a question with the addition of an interrogative phrase. The French phrase n'est-ce pas and the German nicht wahr are invariable, whereas the English interrogative phrase varies from sentence to sentence since it consists of the repetition of part of the actor-action phrase along with the negative not: You're going, aren't you? or He has a car, hasn't he? or She can come, can't she? The repetition of this same form in the answer is peculiar to English: He has gone, hasn't he? Yes, he has, and so on. The answer to a similar question in German, Ist er schon gegangen?, would be simply Ja and not Ja, er ist. Finally, French has the est-ce que construction and English the do or does construction which are comparable: Est-ce que tu as un livre? and Do you have a book?

In Eskimo, questions are signalled by inflectional endings rather than by word order or by an interrogative phrase. For example, the statement /qainiaqpuq/ "He will come" becomes a question when the indicative suffix /-puq/

is replaced by the interrogative suffix /-pa/, giving /qainiaqpa/ "Will he come?"

Often constructions containing the same elements differ concerning the arrangements of these elements. For instance, the English sentence I give her the book and the French Je lui donne le livre differ in the position of the indirect object; in English it follows the verb, whereas in French it precedes the verb. If an English sentence contains both a time reference and a place reference, the latter precedes: I am going home tomorrow. In a similar German sentence, the place reference follows the time reference: Ich gehe morgen nach Hause. In the English example, changing the position of tomorrow so that it introduces the sentence will not affect the rest of the sentence: Tomorrow I am going home. In the case of the German sentence, however, the order of the subject and verb forms is necessarily inverted if morgen, or any word or words other than a coordinating conjunction, precedes the subject: Morgen gehe ich nach Hause. Word order is very important in German if the verb has a separable prefix. In an independent clause in the present, imperfect, or imperative, the prefix stands at the end of the clause: Ich bringe die Bücher mit, but in the future tense, for example, no separation occurs: Ich werde die Bücher mitbringen.

C. Vocabulary

In linguistic contexts, words may be defined as "combinations of sounds acting as a stimulus to bring into attention the experience to which they have become attached by use."[14] The relationship between words in two languages cannot always be stated with mathematical precision. That is, for instance, the English word sense does not cover exactly the same ground as the German word Sinn, and vice versa. Similarly, ice can be translated into Eskimo by any one of five words, depending on its condition--rough, drifting, and so on. Often an idea which can be expressed in one language by a single word must be expressed by a phrase or a clause in another language. For example, the English equivalent of the German expression meinetwegen is the prepositional phrase "for my sake," while the English translation of the Eskimo word /autlaruŋnapniaqpita/ is the sentence "Will we be able to leave?" A beginner will usually attempt to reproduce the expressions of his native language word for word; thus, in trying to express I am dancing in German, he will try to use the construction Ich bin tanzend rather than Ich tanze.

The ability to recognize cognates, words which are

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14 Charles Fries, English Word Lists, A Study of Their Adaptability for Instruction (Ann Arbor, 1950), quoted by Robert Lado in Linguistics Across Cultures, p. 76.

etymologically related, often enables a beginner to
understand foreign lexical items which might otherwise
be unintelligible without the aid of a dictionary.
This is particularly true for German and English, since
about half of all German words are cognates of English
words. Many cognates are similar in form and identical
in meaning, such as the following pairs in English and
German: house and Haus, hunger and Hunger, water and
Wasser. It must be pointed out, however, that cognates
can be faux amis; that is, the similarity in form does
not extend to meaning. For example, to deride cannot
be translated into French by dérider which means "to
smooth," or, figuratively, "to cheer up." Likewise,
attirer does not mean "to attire" but rather "to attract."

The most important point to impress upon the
student as far as vocabulary is concerned is that the
meaning of a word must be understood within the frame-
work of the foreign language, not by its closest
equivalent in his own language.

Comparing two languages in the manner described
briefly above, we may find that they have a great many
similarities, particularly if the languages belong to
the same family, as do English and German. On the
other hand, if the languages represent entirely different
groups, as is the case with English and Eskimo, then

there are a great many differences. No matter whether there is a predominance of similarities or of differences between the student's native language and the foreign language, a knowledge of both is very important to the instructor. Those features of the new language which are similar to features in his own will be easily learned by the student, whereas those which are different will be difficult for him to learn. No time need be wasted on excessive drill of the familiar features, and, knowing the features which are likely to cause difficulty, the instructor can devote special attention to these.

CHAPTER III

GENERAL METHODOLOGY

It is one of the basic premises of modern lin-
guistic science that its analytical procedures can be
applied to all languages with equal success. The great
variety of examples--from Indo-European as well as from
Non-Indo-European languages--cited in the previous
chapter is just one indication of the validity of this
claim, which has been demonstrated beyond doubt in the
structural grammars now available for many languages.

Of equally general application is the methodology
developed by linguists for the teaching of languages.
Based on the structural analysis of the language to be
taught, the general method is adapted to the requirements
of the specific language, enabling the student to pro-
ceed as rapidly as possible towards his goal of full
control of the target language.

It must be remembered that in the approach to
language teaching which is based on linguistic principles,
emphasis is on the oral command of the language to be
learned. This is not to say that reading and writing
are considered unimportant aspects of language learning.
On the contrary, they are integral parts of even a
first-year language course. But the primacy of speech,

and hence the need for forming aural-oral habits first, requires that, in most instances, reading and writing come after speaking the language both in order of presentation and importance.

A. Pronunciation

The first step toward achieving active control of the foreign language is mastery of the foreign sound system. But before the student attempts to pronounce the foreign sounds, he should have a clear understanding of the physiological factors involved in producing speech sounds in general. The instructor should first give a brief but thorough description of the vocal organs[1] and explain their functions as articulators and points of articulation.[2] The student should then be shown the positions of these organs when English sounds are being produced.

Then, each significant sound segment of the foreign language should be described. In order to produce some of the new sounds, such as [x] in German ich, the English student will have to learn entirely new sound-producing movements, just as the German speaker will have to do in pronouncing [θ] or [ɣ]. In cases where there is a similarity between English phonemes

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[1] See Appendix p. 81.

[2] See Appendix p. 82.

and those of the new language, the learner must be
made aware of the differences between the English
sounds and the foreign vowels or consonants and be
cautioned against assigning English values to them.
For example, the differences between English [tʰ] and
French [t̪], or between English [R] and German [r],
can be explained by showing the student the respective
positions of the vocal organs in producing these sounds.[3]
It is not necessary to give a comprehensive allophonic
description of the language, but a brief description
will often help to avoid features of a "foreign accent."[4]
For example, it might be explained that the German
phonemes /b/, /d/, and /g/ have the voiceless positional
variants [p], [t], and [k] respectively which occur in
final position; thus, Tag is pronounced [tak] and not
[tag].

If the language under study is phonetically written,
that is, if there is a close correspondence between the
sounds and their symbols, then the pronunciation drills
can be based on texts in the foreign spelling. German,
Spanish, and Russian have essentially phonetic spelling,

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3 See Appendix pp. 83f.

4 Ruth Weinstein, "Phonetics, Phonemics, and Pronun-
ciation: Application," Applied Linguistics in Language
Teaching, ed. E. Pulgram (Washington, 1954), p. 29.

although in Russian the symbols assigned to the sounds
are different from those in English or German. Both
English and French have unphonetic spelling. In French,
for instance, [ã] is represented in a number of ways--
banc, pan, faon, dent, temps, sang, gens, chant, camp,
while for English [ow] spellings such as illustrated in
hole, bowl, coal, roll, soul are found.

For languages with unphonetic spelling, for languages
with a syllabic alphabet, such as Eskimo, and for
languages which, like Chinese, have a logographic
alphabet, the teaching of pronunciation will be facili-
tated by having transcriptions in a phonetic alphabet
in which one symbol represents only one sound, and a
particular sound is always represented by the same
symbol. This would meet the problem posed by the dis-
crepancy between phonetic value and orthographic repre-
sentation illustrated in the series of French and
English examples given above, as well as in the following
one in which -ough has several pronunciations: though
[ðow], bough [baw], through [θRuw], cough [kɔf], tough
[tʌf], and hiccough [hɪkʌp].

It is not too important which phonetic alphabet
is used, so long as the correspondence between sound and
symbol is consistent. In the modified International
Phonetic Association Alphabet, the French words listed
above would be transcribed [bã], [pã], [fã], [dã], [tã],

[sã], [žã], [šã], and [kã], and the first series of
English examples would be transcribed [howl], [bowl],
[kowl], [Rowl], and [sowl].

The use of phonetic transcriptions is helpful too
in avoiding confusion when two languages assign different
sound values to the same orthographic symbol. For
example, an English speaker seeing the German word Zeit
"time" would automatically pronounce it [zajt] instead
of [tsajt], thus giving rise to the possible confusion
with the German adverb seit [zajt] "since."

However, physiological descriptions and phonetic
transcriptions in themselves do not teach pronunciation.
Their value is limited if the student does not have the
opportunity to hear and imitate the actual pronunciation
of the instructor.

The student must be taught to recognize the
significant foreign sounds and the differences between
them before attempting to produce them. At first,
recognizing sounds which do not occur in his native
language, such as [ö] and [y], will prove difficult.
Pronunciation exercises using minimal pairs such as the
following pairs in German and French will give the student
practice in the recognition of the significant sounds:

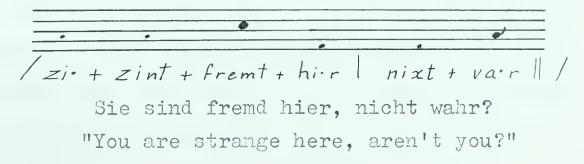| schon	schön		pour	pur
fordern	fördern		loup	lu
Flosse	Flösse		bout	but

These same exercises can be used to give the student
practice in producing these sounds, always in imitation
of the instructor's pronunciation. Once the student is
able to produce a clear distinction between minimal
pairs, he can choose an isolated word and ask one of
the other students to identify it or to produce the
opposite word. This exercise stresses both recognition
and production.[5]

If a student has trouble hearing a new sound, and
thus has difficulty imitating it, returning to physio-
logical explanations and the diagram of the vocal organs
often proves helpful in correcting his pronunciation,
since the instructor can give him specific directions,
such as changing the position of the tongue, rounding
his lips, and so on.

The explanation of the suprasegmental features of
a language often presents a problem. In his book,
Deutsch, Erstes Jahr, Hugo Mueller has an ingenious
method of demonstrating intonation, stress, and
juncture. The intonational patterns are written on
staff paper as though the sentences were being sung:
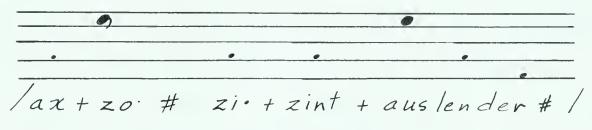
/ zi· + zint + fremt + hi·r | nixt + va·r ‖ /

Sie sind fremd hier, nicht wahr?
"You are strange here, aren't you?"

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[5] Betty J. Wallace, "Pronunciation as a Two-fold
Process," Language Learning, II (April-June, 1949), 44-46.

/ví·r + ko men + aus + a˙me˙ ri˙ ka˙ # /

Wir kommen aus Amerika.

"We come from America."

/ax + zo˙ #   zi˙ + zint + aus len der # /

Ach so, Sie sind Ausländer.

"Oh, I see, you are foreigners."

In these examples, the darkest notes mark heaviest
stress. The symbol /·/ after a vowel means that the
vowel is tense; the other vowels are lax. /+/ indicates
open juncture between words. /|/ signals a pause between
phrases and indicates that the preceding pitch is
sustained. /#/ and /‖/ are pause symbols which occur
at the end of a phrase, the former indicating that the
preceding pitch has a tendency to fall and the latter
indicating that the preceding pitch has a tendency to
rise.

Once the student can identify and produce the
phonemes of the foreign language accurately, auto-
matically, and confidently, he is ready to proceed with
the rest of the material.

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6 Hugo Mueller, Deutsch, Erstes Jahr (Milwaukee,
1958), p. 39.

B. Grammar

Since language-learning is a cumulative process, it follows that the material which is presented first should lay the foundation for what comes next. The course material and material in the text, if one is used, should be graded so as to present the grammatical forms and vocabulary items in a logical progression and to give the student the maximum sense of achievement.

In introducing grammatical forms, inductive methods which give the students opportunity to discover for themselves the rules of grammar are preferable to teaching formal grammar.[7] These methods are described by Bloomfield:

> [Grammar should be taught] only where it definitely contributes to the ease of learning. When a new text appears, the learner should be able to tell where he has met the words and phrases it contains and others like them. Now, when he meets a new inflectional form of a known word, the differences in the use of the two forms should be carefully illustrated and practised. After a time, when a considerable number of such collocations has been made... the grammatical statement, if simple enough to be of help, may be given... On the other hand, the grammatical statement must often be kept temporarily incomplete. The German dative case, for instance, is of so hetero-geneous use that a statement of its value would take a long time and would be unintel-ligible to any but a linguistically trained learner. Instead, we may collect our

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[7] UNESCO, The Teaching of Modern Languages (Paris, 1955), p. 51.

accumulated examples of datives, observe
the forms, and their occurrence after cer-
tain verbs and certain prepositions and
independently in the sentence...before the
abstract statement is given. [8]

Some language instructors would even agree that knowing

the rules of grammar will contribute nothing to learning

to speak the language and would devote the time usually

spent on grammatical explanations to imitation and drill.

They would also avoid discussing the alleged "logic"

of language, be it in grammatical structure or in the

history of vocabulary items. Nothing is gained by an

analysis of, for instance, the use of the double

negative in Russian and Spanish and its absence in

standard German and English, nor by an attempt to

explain why a Frenchman says contre le mur "against

the wall" when an Englishman says on the wall.

It follows that in practising grammatical forms

and constructions emphasis be placed on those which

have a high function load. Little used tenses and

modes should be avoided as should stylistic alter-

natives which frequently merely confuse the student.

C. Vocabulary

The student should be introduced to foreign words

in the form of greetings, short statements, and

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[8] Leonard Bloomfield, An Introduction to the Study
of Language (New York, 1914), p. 303.

questions of the favourite-sentence type used in simple
discourse, and not via a list of vocabulary to be
memorized. The sentences should deal with objects
that can be easily illustrated, such as pieces of
furniture, parts of the body, or articles of clothing,
and actions that can be demonstrated while they are
being named, such as walking, running, eating, drinking,
and so on. Naturally, the choice of words to be
introduced will be limited to items of the standard
language, avoiding the use of slang and other substandard
forms. A frequency list of vocabulary items is a helpful
guide to the instructor who has to make his own
selection.

From the very beginning, translation into the
student's native language should be kept to a minimum,
if not avoided altogether. Firstly, when the student
learns a new word, he should associate it with the
object or action named and not with the corresponding
English word. Thus, when he sees the German word
Feder, he should immediately think of an instrument used
in writing, and not of the English word pen. If the
habit of associating the foreign word with the native
one becomes fixed, the student's foreign vocabulary
will remain small. Then too, glosses are often
misleading. For example, a student learning that German
wenn can be translated by when might confuse wenn with

als or wann, both of which also mean when in certain
contexts, or he might confuse wenn with ob if he
learns the meaning of both as if.

D. Methods of Attaining Aural-Oral Control

There are four steps to the mastery of grammatical
forms and vocabulary items--comprehension, retention,
production, and correction.[9]

COMPREHENSION. Very often a language student attributes
his inability to understand a foreign speaker to his
limited vocabulary but finds to his dismay that he
can readily understand what has been said when he sees
the written text. The difficulty is not lack of
vocabulary but a lack of aural comprehension. This
situation can be avoided by constant usage of the
foreign language in the classroom. It is very important
that, from the start, the instructor speak with normal
accent and intonation and at a normal speed. Over-
accented and slower speech may make it easier for the
student to understand in the early stages, but both
over-accentuation and slowing down will result in
distorted speech, particularly in the vowel sounds,
and the purpose of introducing the spoken language

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[9] Leon Dostert, "Pedagogical Concepts for the Use
of Certain Audio Aids in Language Teaching," Applied
Linguistics for Language Teaching, ed. E. Pulgram
(Washington, 1954), pp. 3f.

early in the course is defeated.

There are several types of exercises which can be used to improve the student's comprehension ability. One such exercise, called shadowing, can be used effectively in the language laboratory or with individual students. The instructor reads at normal speed from a prepared text, and the student repeats what is being read as quickly as he comprehends it; usually there is a lapse of a few syllables. Since the student cannot see what is being read, he must listen intently and concentrate entirely on what is being said.

Dictation is another good way of teaching the student to listen. The most valuable type is the dictation in which one student goes to the blackboard and writes as the instructor dictates at a fairly rapid speed. The other students write the dictation at their desks. The mistakes made by the student at the blackboard are then corrected. In this way, the correct forms are available to the others while the text is still fresh in their mind. Dictation is of little value if the instructor does not correct the mistakes immediately but collects the papers, corrects them, and then returns them only to have the students file the papers away without making note of the corrections. Oral dictation in the language laboratory is also excellent training for comprehension.[10]

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[10] See page 53, paragraph 2.

Finally, comprehension may be tested through such audition tests as the <u>Lundeberg-Tharp Audition Test in French</u>.[11] In this type of test, the student is given a paper consisting of groups of four words or phrases which are phonetically similar. The instructor reads one word or phrase from each group, and the student must mark the one which has been read. For example:

__tu vois	__au fond	__il sait tout
__tout va	__enfant	__sais tu?
__du foie	__enfin	__il cède tout
__tu vas	__afin	__il se tue

RETENTION. A student learning a new language must learn new linguistic habits, habits which can be learned only by unremitting practice of the basic patterns of the language. Repetition must not, however, be mechanical or perfunctory and should not dwell on the same sentence or group of sentences but present the students with possible variations of a basic pattern. A very practical type is the variation practice used in the elementary text <u>German</u> by Rehder and Twaddell. In this exercise, a basic German sentence is given with its English equivalent and a number of English sentences in which one element of the original sentence is changed. For example:

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[11] Olav K. Lundeberg and James B. Tharp, <u>Lundeberg-Tharp Audition Test in French</u> (Columbus, 1929).

> Es hat mich sehr gefreut, mit Ihnen zu sprechen.
>
> I was very pleased to talk with you.
> I was very pleased to talk with him.
> I was very pleased to talk with her.
> I was very pleased to talk with your sister.
> I was very pleased to see you again.
> I was very pleased to see him again.
> I was very pleased to see them again.
> He was very pleased to see them again.
> He was very pleased to talk with you.
> We were very pleased to talk with you.[12]

These forms should be practised over and over again until they become entirely natural. Language learning is overlearning.[13]

PRODUCTION. Concomitant with retaining the foreign language patterns is producing them. The student may produce the pattern quite acceptably as long as he devotes his full attention to it, but the moment he concentrates on the subject of the conversation, he is likely to be influenced by the patterns of his native language, and systematic distortions of the pattern may occur.[14] The students should begin to speak the language by taking part in simple extemporaneous conversations about real-life situations, using the expressions they have learned. Later, as the students

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[12] Helmut Rehder and Freeman Twaddell, _German_, rev. ed. (New York, 1958), p. 98.

[13] Leonard Bloomfield, _Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages_ (Baltimore, 1942), p. 12.

[14] Robert Lado, "Pattern Practice--Completely Oral," _Language Learning_, I (January, 1948), 24.

gain confidence in the language, they can present improvised skits, and so on.

CORRECTION. Bad speech habits are easily fixed and once fixed are very difficult to correct. Thus, the instructor must constantly diagnose and correct the mistakes, both in pronunciation and in grammar, as they are made. This does not mean that as the student speaks the instructor should interrupt each time he mispronounces a word or uses an incorrect form; this will only discourage the beginner. Mistakes can be corrected without interrupting if they are jotted down as each student speaks and then explained and corrected before the end of the class. Each student then receives the notations of his own mistakes as a reminder to practise the correct forms. The instructor should be satisfied not when he feels that the student will be understood, but only when he cannot be misunderstood.[15]

E. Reading

Reading should not be introduced until the student is fully conversant with the sound system and the basic patterns of the new language. Particularly in languages which do not have a close correspondence between the

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[15] William Welmers, Spoken English as a Foreign Language (Washington, 1953), p. 7.

phonetic values and their orthographic representation, early introduction to reading will in the case of most students lead to a transfer of native sound values to the written symbol in the foreign language. It will require much valuable time to resolve the resulting confusion.

As the students begin to read, the first reading selections should be chosen keeping in mind the following six "positive requirements" suggested by Jespersen. Texts should (1) be connected, with a sensible meaning, (2) be interesting, lively, varied, (3) contain the most necessary material of the language first, especially the material of everyday language, (4) be correct German (French, etc.), (5) pass gradually from that which is easy to that which is more difficult, (6) yet without too much consideration for what is merely grammatically easy or difficult. [16]

It is most important that the assigned reading material be read for meaning but not translated into the native language. Instead, the student should be asked to give a brief oral or written summary, or answer simple questions about it in the foreign language.

Although copious reading of foreign texts lies beyond the objectives of the elementary course, the

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[16] Otto Jespersen, How to Teach a Foreign Language, trans. Sophia Bertelsen (London, 1952), p. 23.

instructor should emphasize the value of reading in language learning. This point was stressed at the UNESCO International Seminar on foreign-language teaching held in Ceylon in 1953:

> ...Voracious reading gives the reader such familiarity with the language that eventually he barely realizes that he is reading a foreign language. It gives him that facility by building up for him an enormous passive vocabulary and by training him to respond to meaning that is expressed in a very varied assortment of structures and collocations of words. [17]

F. Writing

As in the case of reading, the introduction of writing is best delayed until the student has mastered the sounds of the new language and is, in fact, quite fluent in reading it. However, if the orthography is phonetic, writing in the foreign language may begin almost immediately and may be used to jot down greetings, short phrases and expressions; if not, then it is better to delay using the foreign alphabet until the student has mastered pronunciation and has a good start on pattern practice so that he does not have to contend with irregular spelling as well as unusual sounds and patterns at the same time.

After writing has been introduced, the written

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[17] UNESCO, p. 71.

exercise can supplement, but never replace, oral practice. As the student's vocabulary and fluency in the language increase, he may be asked to write out simple conversations or short compositions about day to day affairs. Eventually, through a gradual progression from easy to difficult material, he will be able to deal with literary topics and other abstract ideas.

G. Teaching Aids

Language teachers are becoming increasingly aware of the important part which teaching aids, some of them old and simple, others new and complex, can play in language teaching. Consisting of devices which use auditory and visual stimuli, and frequently a combination of both, to produce correct linguistic responses, they are usually referred to as audio-visual aids.

The greatest value of these aids is in assisting to establish and to fix the linguistic habits required by the new language. Repetition is the essential method of acquiring habits, and the various teaching aids, such as wall charts or slides of objects and scenes, phonograph records and tapes for audio-training, tape recorders, and the language laboratory, all assure that the stimulus for this repetition is uniform

so that, as nearly as possible, the same response is elicited.

Wall charts depicting single or series of related objects are particularly useful in the early stages of the course, when the student has to acquire a basic working vocabulary without the aid of written material. It is not important that the items carry captions, but if they do, they should be in the foreign language only. It is, in fact, preferable if charts without captions are available, so that the name of the object becomes directly associated with the object and not with the English equivalent.

In presenting the material on such charts--the objects in a room, a street scene, colours and shapes, the members of the family, actions, and so on--it is important not merely to give the name of each item, but to include it in a phrase or coupled phrases as a question and answer of the kind: "What/Who/How is this?" followed by "This is..." This approach not only familiarizes the student with vocabulary items in context, it also introduces basic, and for the beginner the most important, patterns.

At a later stage, students can be asked to describe orally or in writing more elaborate scenes depicted on charts or slides. Such scenes should represent true-to-life situations and can be used to present to the

class cultural material about the country and people whose language is being studied.

Phonograph records and tapes are valuable for intensive listening practice and for checking aural comprehension. Loudspeakers or individual headsets may be used, depending on the electronic equipment available. But whatever the equipment, it is important that the recorded material consist of greetings, questions, statements, and dialogues taken from everyday situations and that it be delivered in a natural voice. As the students advance to a higher level of language learning, they may be required, in connection with literature study, to listen to prose passages as well as recorded dramas on these listening devices and through hearing them several times acquire a better understanding and hence a greater appreciation of these works.

The single turn table or tape recording device and the language laboratory, where such devices are set up in large numbers, represent, in the great variety of types now available, the latest advances in audio-oral aids. With this type of equipment, not only can the student listen to high fidelity recordings, he can also record his version of the material heard and then play it back. He thus has the opportunity of being able to compare the "master's version" with his own and, becoming increasingly aware of his own

mistakes through self-analysis, can correct many of them.

The language laboratory can be used in very many ways for aural-oral practice and testing. Its greatest advantage, however, seems to lie in the increased efficiency which it gives to a language course. Being nearly always open to the student, it affords an opportunity for much more practice than could be provided without a considerably increased instructional staff. The results of such intensive practice fully warrant the considerable initial cost of purchase and installation of the equipment.

Motion pictures can be used to a limited extent in a language program. They do allow the student to hear the colloquial language spoken in a natural setting and in a natural way and to observe the characteristic gestures and facial expressions which often accompany speech. On the other hand, seeing a film several times in succession becomes boring and reduces its value.

The value of a film can be utilized fully if students are given a brief resumé of the content beforehand or, better still, if they can listen to the sound track several times before and after the showing so that they will be able to retain the dialogue better. The best instructional films are always short.

A scene which can be shown in up to ten minutes can also be used to provide much needed relief in an intensive drill session in the laboratory.

In considering teaching aids, it must be remembered that their use must be integrated with the language course as a whole. The various devices must be correlated to other aspects of the language program-- the textbook, the presentation of the material in class, assignments, rate of progress, and so on. Only in this way can these aids be of value in covering the course systematically and support, although never replace, the active language situation or the well-qualified instructor.

CHAPTER IV

LINGUISTIC PRINCIPLES APPLIED TO TEACHING
AN ELEMENTARY GERMAN COURSE

In September, 1959, a new type of elementary
foreign-language course was offered at the University
of Alberta. This course, German 100, differs from the
traditional first-year language course in that its
emphasis is on learning to speak the language rather
than on reading and translation. The objective of
the course as outlined in the University of Alberta
Calendar for the 1959-60 term is "to impart, on an
introductory level, an active, practical skill in the
use of the spoken and written word."

In conducting the course, the instructor used
both the analytical procedures described in Chapter II
and some of the methods outlined in Chapter III. It
will, therefore, not be necessary to refer here in
detail to matters previously discussed.

The writer attended the German 100 classes as an
observer.

The class consisted of eighteen undergraduate
students, most of them in their first year of university
study. All spoke English as their native language or
with native fluency. Only two had a slight previous
knowledge of German which proved an asset to these
students only insofar as they had an initial recognition
vocabulary of some common words and phrases. In age,

the students ranged from eighteen to twenty-five years,
the average being near nineteen.

Although the course was divided into two terms,
the first of twelve weeks and the second of fourteen,
interrupted by the Christmas recess of nearly two
weeks, this division was not reflected in the organization
and presentation of the material; these were governed
by internal rather than external factors. Like all
elementary language courses at the University, German 100
met five times weekly for fifty-minute periods. Three
of these periods were spent in the classroom and two
in the language laboratory.

Instructional Procedure

For the greater part of the course, the class
periods were devoted almost exclusively to oral work.

At the beginning of the course, the instructor,
a trained linguist and a native German speaker, gave
a brief description of German sounds, using the speech-
organ chart to describe their production. Subsequent
correction of the students' pronunciation was largely
in terms of articulators and points of articulation,
always reinforced by demonstration and practice of
the sound or combination of sounds involved.

In connection with this analysis and practice,
the contrastive procedure discussed in Chapter II

(page 11 above) was used. That is, the nature of
the difference between, for instance, German [r] and
English [R], German [l] and English [ḷ], was made
clear to the students, and contrasts in the vowel
systems of the two languages were pointed out. The
instructor placed considerable stress on a clear under-
standing by the students of these differences and
insisted throughout the course that they remain aware
of them, particularly in cases where there was a tendency
to anglicize German sounds.

   With the help of illustrated wall charts, the
students were then introduced to the simple declarative
and interrogative constructions of German and, at the
same time, to a basic practical vocabulary. The
instructor asked a question, pointing to an object on
the chart. The class repeated the question in chorus,
imitating as closely as possible his pronunciation.
The instructor then gave the answer which again was
repeated by the class as a whole:

   "Was ist das?" "Das ist ein Tisch/eine Lampe."

   "Wer ist das?" "Das ist die Mutter."

   "Wie ist das Haus?" Das Haus ist gross/weiss."

   "Ist das ein Baum?" "Ja, das ist ein Baum," or

   "Nein, das ist kein Baum, das ist eine Blume."

At first the adjectives were given only in their unin-
flected post-verbal position. Then the inflected form

was introduced:

"Das Buch ist rot." "Das ist ein rotes Buch."
Single drill followed unison practice until satisfactory
pronunciation and retention of the material presented
were attained.

Charts were also used to introduce the simple verb
forms. For example:

Ich spiele Klavier/ Flöte/ Violine.
Sie spielen...
Er spielt...
Wir spielen...
Sie spielen...

In order to avoid confusion and wrong usage, the du
and ihr forms of you, which have only limited
applications for the learner of German, were not
introduced until quite late in the course.

With the exception of the captions on the charts,
which gave only the German name of the object in
standard orthography, no printed material was used.
It is also important to realize that the students were
not expected to take notes during class, nor were they
given any written home assignments.

In the laboratory sessions of the first five weeks,
the tape-recorded material which accompanies the text
was used for intensive practice and drill. There again,
the students, not being allowed to use the text itself,
had to rely completely on the aural impression of the
dialogues heard. Through repeated, concentrated

listening and subsequent practice, they were able to achieve a very good pronunciation in this relatively short time.

To a large extent, this was due to the fact that, instead of the regular reading or written assignments associated with most university courses, students were asked to spend at least one hour daily in the laboratory, practising the current tape material. At the end of their practice session, they made a seven-minute recording of the material covered, and this was then handed in for the instructor's evaluation.

It should be noted that by adopting this procedure, students were engaged in at least ten hours per week of listening to and speaking German. While this is still far from the twenty-seven class hours per week of the Army Specialized Training Program, it is undoubtedly more than most college or university language courses provide. This concentration of contact work is especially im-portant during the first completely oral stage of the course, and a further expansion would no doubt produce still better results.

The recorded material consisted of unbroken dialogues and prose passages for listening practice, and spaced recordings to give the student an opportunity to imitate the phrase or sentence he had just heard. The tape material followed, unit for unit, the material in the text.

It is instructive to examine briefly the prescribed text book, German_ by Helmut Rehder and Freeman Twaddell,[1] which makes use of sound linguistic principles, chiefly the pattern approach, in presenting its material. The text is divided into forty-two units. Each unit in turn is divided into two sections, the first on language practice and the second on grammar and word study. In the first twenty-four units, the language practice section consists of exercises to be drilled orally, while the last eighteen units emphasize reading practice.

Each of the first twenty-four units begins with a group of twenty basic sentences, usually in the form of a conversation. These sentences give the constructions and vocabulary which will be drilled in the following exercises along with material from the previous units. For example, Unit 3 begins with the following group of sentences:

1. Was wünschen Sie zu essen?
2. Bringen Sie mir ein Wiener Schnitzel mit Salat.
3. Darf ich um etwas Brot bitten?
4. Darf ich um die Butter bitten?
5. Was wünschen Sie zu trinken?
6. Möchten Sie eine Tasse Kaffee?
7. Bringen Sie mir, bitte, ein Glas Milch.
8. Möchten Sie auch Nachtisch?
9. Ja, bitte. Und bringen Sie mir ein Glas Wasser.
10. Haben Sie Schokolade?
11. Geben Sie mir, bitte, eine Tafel Schokolade.

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[1] Helmut Rehder and Freeman Twaddell, German, rev. ed. (New York, 1958).

12. Ich möchte Zigaretten kaufen.
13. Bitte, geben Sie mir eine Schachtel Zigaretten.
14. Darf ich um Feuer bitten?
15. Haben Sie Streichhölzer?
16. Bringen Sie mir, bitte, ein Glas Bier.
17. Zum Wohl, der Herr!
18. Wieviel kostet das?
19. Es kostet siebzig Pfennig.
20. Das kostet zwei Mark. [2]

The English equivalents of these sentences are printed on the reverse side of the leaf. The instructor reads the German sentences (or the tape recording is used) while the students follow the English equivalents. This procedure is then reversed. After the students have practised the German sentences several times, always imitating the instructor who speaks with normal intonation, juncture, and speed, they then proceed to the oral drills.

The first type of drill is a model conversation which gives the students practice in using the vocabulary he has learned in a variety of constructions:

Verkäufer: Was wünschen Sie, bitte?
Gifford: Ich möchte gerne Zigaretten kaufen.
Verkäufer: Ja, gewiss. Darf ich Ihnen Feuer geben?
Gifford: Ja, bitte. Geben Sie mir auch eine
            Schachtel Streichhölzer. Wieviel
            kostet das?
Verkäufer: Das kostet eine Mark fünfundsiebzig.[3]

In the second type of exercise, called combination practice, the student combines elements of a pattern in several arrangements, always producing a basic German

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[2] Rehder and Twaddell, p. 18.

[3] Rehder and Twaddell, p. 19.

pattern. In the following example, a verb-phrase is combined with an object-phrase:

I	II
1. Wünschen Sie...?	a. ein Glas Wasser
2. Möchten Sie...?	b. etwas Salat
3. Darf ich um...bitten?	c. Zigaretten
4. Bringen Sie mir, bitte,..!	d. die Butter
5. Geben Sie mir, bitte,..!	e. etwas Schokolade, etc.[4]

The phrases in column I may be combined with those in column II in the order 1a, 1b, 1c... or 1a, 2a, etc.

The third type of oral drill is the variation practice in which a German sentence is given with its English equivalent. Then a list of sentences to be rendered in German is given, each sentence varying one element (the time reference, person reference, verb tense, etc.) of the basic sentence at a time:

Haben Sie denn viel zu tun?

1. Do you have much to do?
2. Does he have much to do?
3. Does your son have much to do?
4. Does your sister have much to do?
5. She doesn't have much to do, etc. [5]

Every fifth unit is followed by a review unit which includes sentences and reading passages based on the material covered up to that point. Thus, through the drills and reviews, the student thoroughly assimilates the old material before continuing.

Under this approach, the learning of grammar is

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[4] Rehder and Twaddell, p. 20.

[5] Rehder and Twaddell, p. 97.

largely inductive. That is, the student learns how
and when to use a certain mood, case, or preposition
by seeing it in context and repeating it frequently
rather than by learning a rule governing its usage and
then trying to apply the rule. Information concerning
form and usage is given in the section on grammar and
word study, but this section of the unit was assigned
as home study and points were discussed in class only
if the students had particular problems. As in the
case of phonology, the students' attention was drawn
to similarities and differences between English and
German grammatical structure and usage in an effort to
forestall such possible transfers from English structure
as Ich bin gehend for I am going.

However, grammatical study as such was reduced
to a minimum on the assumption that the instructor's
purpose in the classroom is not so much to present the
grammatical facts of the language as to provide a model
for the students to imitate.

The subject matter of the text deals with everyday
events of life in Germany. "At the station," "in the
street," "at the dentist's" are some of the topics used
in the conversation and drill section of the text.
Reading passages deal with such topics as weather and
climate in Germany, traffic in Germany, the opera

"Tannhäuser," etc. Throughout the text, students found the material to be interesting and mature, a decided break with the tradition of having first-year university foreign-language texts at the level of grade school pupils.

The text was first used in class after five weeks of oral work. However, the material was always presented first in the laboratory, and the class session thus provided an opportunity for review of vocabulary and grammatical material as well as for checking and correcting the pronunciation of students.

Further review was possible from the eighth week on, when written exercises were assigned. These exercises were taken from the workbook accompanying the text.[6] The following are sample exercises from Unit 6 and Unit 25 respectively:

> Copy the entire German sentence, replacing the English word with the proper German equivalent.
>
> 1. Das [know] ich nicht.
> 2. Ich [am allowed] nicht zu Hause essen.
> 3. Wir [have to] in einem Restaurant essen.
> 4. Um wieviel Uhr [are supposed to] wir essen?
> 5. Es [will] wohl nicht billig sein, etc.
>
> Revise these sentences so that they begin with the words or phrases printed in capitals.
>
> 1. Dieser Zug kommt GEWÖHNLICH rechtzeitig an.
> 2. Ich bin LEIDER kein Mekaniker.
> 3. Hier geschieht DAS jeden Tag.
> 4. Sie brauchen eine Platzkarte FÜR DIESEN ZUG, etc.

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[6] Helmut Rehder and Freeman Twaddell, *Practicing German*, rev. ed. (New York, 1958).

These are not "fill-in-the-blank" exercises, but in each case the student is required to rewrite the whole sentence. Thus, he learns not only how to construct, for example, a subordinate clause or an adverbial phrase but also the relationship of each part of the sentence to the whole. Both vocabulary and grammatical patterns become fixed in his mind.

The students' progress was tested at various times during the year. In November, an oral examination was administered in the laboratory since written work had not yet been introduced. It consisted of three parts: (1) recording sentences which had been repeated twice, (2) giving answers in German to ten such questions as "Wieviel Uhr ist es?", "Wie komme ich zum Restaurant?", "Wo ist das MacDonald Hotel?" and so on, and (3) counting from one to twelve and from ten to one hundred in tens.

The questions on the written examinations administered in December and February were of the same type as those in the workbook. A copy of each of these examinations is found in the Appendix.[7]

It is perhaps useful to observe that all answers on the examinations were to be written in German; there was no translation, either from English to German or from German to English, and there were no grammatical questions as such.

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[7] See Appendix pp. 85ff.

The final examination will be made up of an oral part to be administered in the laboratory and in individual interviews and a two-hour written test.

CHAPTER V

ACHIEVEMENTS AND CONCLUSIONS

In the preceding chapter some brief references have been made to the achievements in the elementary German course there described. It now remains to attempt to make a more detailed assessment of the various aspects of the course and of the overall success of the method used.

However, such an evaluation must, for the present at least, remain tentative. The number of students involved in this initial experimental class was too small to use statistical methods to assess the success of the course in terms of, for instance, still dominant pronunciation and grammatical mistakes, nor was a control class taught by traditional methods available for purposes of comparison. Most important, perhaps, these conclusions have to be written nearly a month before the end of the course, at a time when students can be expected to show the greatest rate of progress. It is, however, not too early to recognize some significant accomplishments on the part of the students, particularly if the writer compares their present level of achievement with her own at the time when she took an elementary German course by the traditional method.

The most noticeable achievement occurred with respect to pronunciation. After only five weeks of instruction, when the first test was given, a number of the students had acquired a surprisingly good pronunciation. Although the time spent listening to and practising to speak German was from that point on gradually reduced to about half, the students continued to make good progress so that at the time of writing approximately fifty per cent have a near-perfect pronunciation. According to the recollection of the writer and the experience of the instructor with other elementary courses, this has not been possible by using the traditional method until, at the earliest, the end of the second year.

Naturally, a number of students still make mistakes, particularly in reproducing vowel sounds and diphthongs, and two or three have serious difficulties with length, stress, and intonation as well. Judging from the improvements which these students particularly have been able to make by devoting some additional time to intensive practice, it is very likely that still further increased effort would bring them to the level of the average member of the class. However, it is doubtful whether this is compatible with the students' total program.

Through the "mimicry-memorization" practice of the

basic sentences in each unit and the conversations based on them, the students have gradually acquired a substantial core of phrases and expressions applicable to many conversational situations. The ability to recall or to form such brief phrases was found to be well developed in a number of students who could, in fact, carry on a brief conversation. The retention span of others was not so long, and additional practice will be required before a similar conversational ability is attained by them. However, the achievement of the class as a whole in this respect far surpasses that of a class taught by traditional methods, whose members even at the end of the second year still suffered from the consequences of having learned their German from reading passages.

The achievements were not limited to near-mastery of German pronunciation and an elementary conversational ability. The emphasis on oral drill in the classroom and laboratory periods did not necessarily mean that the teaching of grammar was abandoned. On the contrary, this course covered the same amount of grammatical material that is usually found in the standard first-year grammar. However, by presenting the material in pattern sentences and giving drills of various kinds on these patterns, the students acquired a "feeling" for German which the traditional course, because of its more formal

approach to grammar, could not achieve.

As a result, some of the allegedly difficult sections of German grammar, such as the agreement of adjectives, the subjunctive forms, and irregular verbs, were mastered by the students through frequent use from the beginning without any reference to the rules governing their construction and use; the rules were introduced much later in the course. Repetition and drill of meaningful phrases and sentences have replaced the tedious memorization of endings or isolated forms. Judging from the nearly always accurate and almost instantaneous responses of many students in an extemporaneous oral exercise on adjective agreement, the results of this new approach as applied to grammar study surpass those of the traditional method.

During the last third of the course, the emphasis shifted slightly from oral work to reading. Because the authors of the text included so skilfully many known constructions and items of vocabulary in the reading selections, the students had a high recognition and comprehension ability from the beginning. This was improved and sharpened as practice and vocabulary increased. By the end of the course, the students will be able to read with full understanding material written in a style which is, to be sure, simple, but which uses all the common German constructions and a vocabulary of approximately twenty-five hundred to

three thousand items.

It might be mentioned here that a vocabulary of this size is quite large for a first-year language course; most texts include not more than fifteen hundred words, approximately half of which are designated as active vocabulary and the rest as passive, that is, for recognition purposes only. Not all words in Rehder and Twaddell's German are actively used by the students, but again, because of the frequent repetition of the material in various forms--conversations, pattern practice, workbook exercises, etc.--the active vocabulary of German 100 students is much larger than that of students in a traditional course.

It is in agreement with the general approach to the study of language used in this course that translation exercises as such, either from German to English or from English to German, were not included in the program. Such exercises focus the students' attention on the individual words and the specific grammatical relationship between them. Rather, the student is encouraged to "transfer" directly the English phrase or sentence into its German equivalent, and vice versa, a procedure for which the pattern practice has prepared him. Translation can safely be postponed until the second year of language study, at which time the literary texts read provide an adequate challenge to the students.

Very few, if any, first-year language courses
require free composition. This, too, is best delayed
until the second year. Students in German 100 were
asked, however, to paraphrase prose passages or to
use the content of such a passage as the subject of a
letter. Such exercises were, in general, well done.

It is interesting to note that, in spite of the
emphasis on oral work, students were found to make few
mistakes in spelling. It seems quite possible that the
acquisition of a good pronunciation of a language which
is to a large extent phonetic is an asset in avoiding
orthographic mistakes. However, the validity of this
explanation must still be tested.

Indeed, as pointed out at the beginning of this
chapter, the conclusions presented here would rest on
more solid ground if they could be supported by stati-
stical evidence based on the experience gained with a
large number of students and with a course which had
been in existence for at least two or three years.
It is felt that such evidence would support the obser-
vations made above and indicate clearly that an
elementary foreign-language course taught on the basis
of sound linguistic principles is superior in its
accomplishments to one taught by the traditional grammar
method. In addition to being as well prepared to read
and write the foreign language as their colleagues in

a traditional course, the products of the type of
course here discussed are also able to carry on, with
a good pronunciation, a simple conversation in the
new language.

For many years it has not been considered possible
to achieve these three basic objectives of language
learning in an elementary course taught under the
limiting conditions imposed by the university setting.
The demonstration that they can be achieved provides
the strongest support for the argument that language
courses based on sound linguistic principles should
be introduced wherever possible.

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Delatre, Pierre. "Some Suggestions for Teaching Methods Arising from Research on the Acoustic Analysis and Synthesis of Speech," Report of the Third Annual Round Table Mee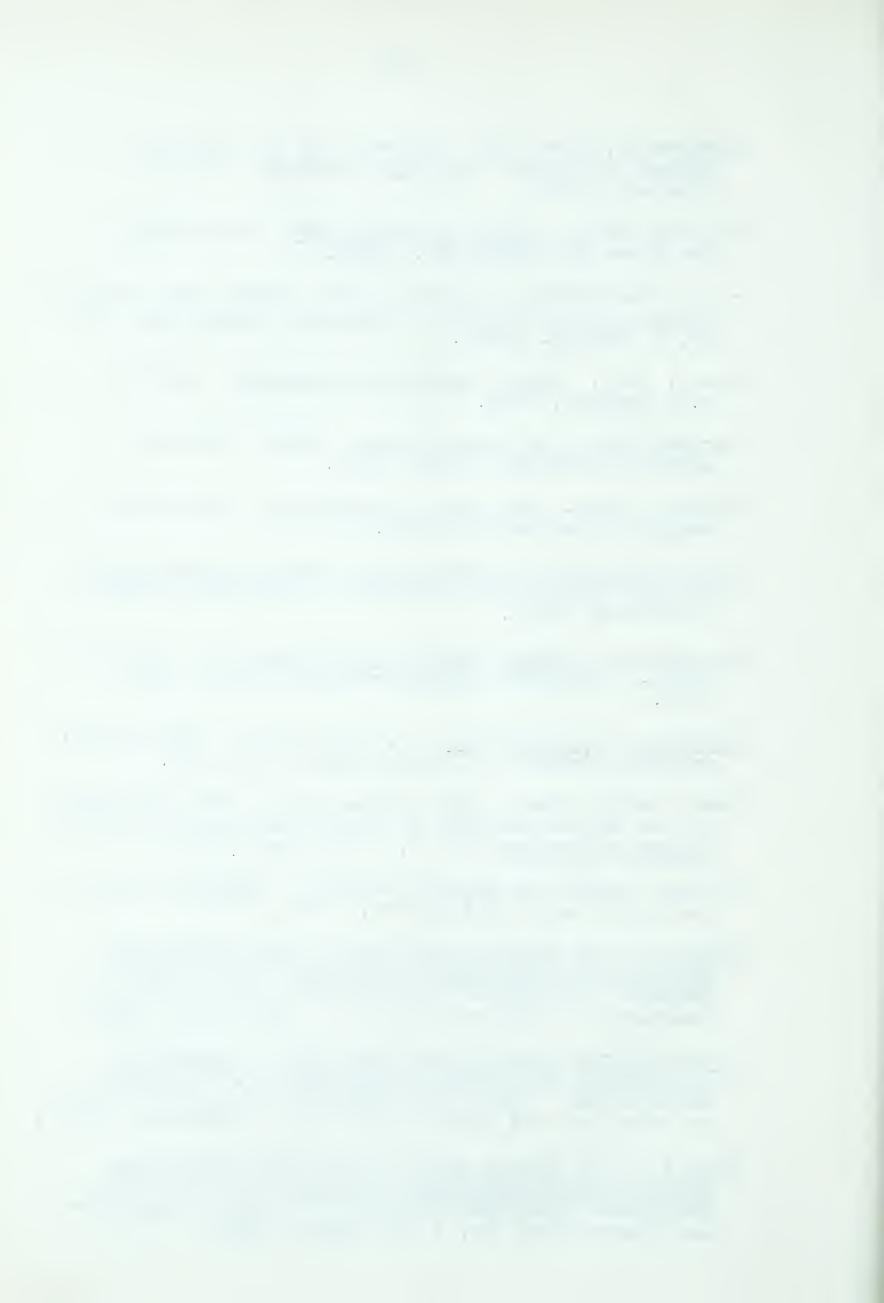ting on Linguistics and Language Teaching, ed. S.J. Castiglione. Georgetown University Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics, No. 2 (September, 1952).

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A P P E N D I X

Figure 1   The Vocal Organs

Figure 2   The Points of Articulation

French dental [t̪]

English alveolar [t]

Figure 3   Comparison of French [t̪] and English [t]

German front [x]

German back [x̱]

Figure 4   Comparison of German [x] and [x̱]

German front [r]

German back [r̰]

American
retroflexed [R]

Figure 5   Comparison of German [r] and English [R]

German alveolar [l]

English velar [l̰]

Figure 6   Comparison of German [l] and English [l̰]

GERMAN 100
December 1959   Name..................

I. Modify the sentence below to produce a new German sentence
   equivalent to each of the English sentences given:

   "Ich habe einen Brief von ihm bekommen."

   1. We received a letter from him.

   ....

   2. The children received a letter from him.

   ....

   3. He received a letter from his wife.

   ....

   4. They received a letter from her.

   ....

   5. Mr. Brown, did you receive a letter from him?

   ....
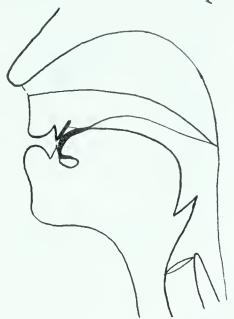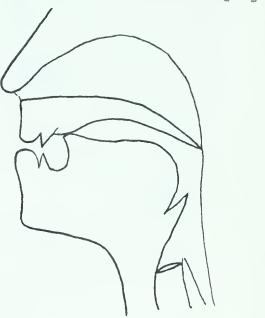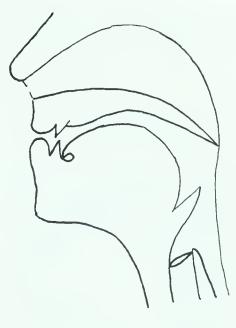
   6. No, I did not receive a letter from him.

   ....

   7. Can you tell me when they received a letter from him?

   ....

   8. They will receive a letter from him.

   ....

   9. He would like to receive a letter from him.

   ....

   10. Do you know that I have received a letter from him?

   ....

II. Replace the English words with proper German equivalents.

1. Darf ich um ein Glas Milch . . . . (ask)?

2. Wo können wir . . . . (ourselves) waschen?

3. (May we) . . . . bei Ihnen vorbeikommen?

4. (Ask) . . . . den Beamten am Paketschalter!

5. Ich habe . . . . (my) Mann ein Buch gekauft.

6. Seine Frau . . . . (is waiting) auf ihn.

7. Wir danken . . . . (him).

8. Wie geht es . . . . (you), Herr Reiff?

9. (Mornings, every morning) . . . . geht Karl in die Schule.

10. (Is this not) . . . . deine Freundin?

11. Wo kann ich . . . . (a) Brief nach Amerika aufgeben?

12. Er . . . . (ought to) um drei Uhr am Bahnhof sein.

13. Wir können . . . . . (without) das Telefon nicht auskommen.

14. Sie . . . . . . (have to) Arbeit finden.

15. (Tell) . . . . mir etwas Neues!

16. (How much) . . . . kostet das?

17. Ich kann nichts . . . . . (against) dieses Geschäft sagen.

18. Das Kino fängt . . . . (at eight o'clock) an.

19. (2 x 12) . . . . macht (24) . . . .

20. Nein, Herr Müller wohnt in einem . . . . (another) Haus.

III. Complete the sentences below by filling in the correct word or phrases from the list provided.

1. Die Schüler gehen mit . . . .

2. Das Buch liegt auf . . . .

3. Er fährt durch . . . .

4. Die Blumen sind für . . . .

5. Wir sitzen in . . . .

mir
dem Tisch
ihn
unsere Mutter
dem Zimmer
sie
den Stuhl
Die Schule
die Stadt
ich

IV. Use the passage below to answer <u>in German</u> the questions based on it.
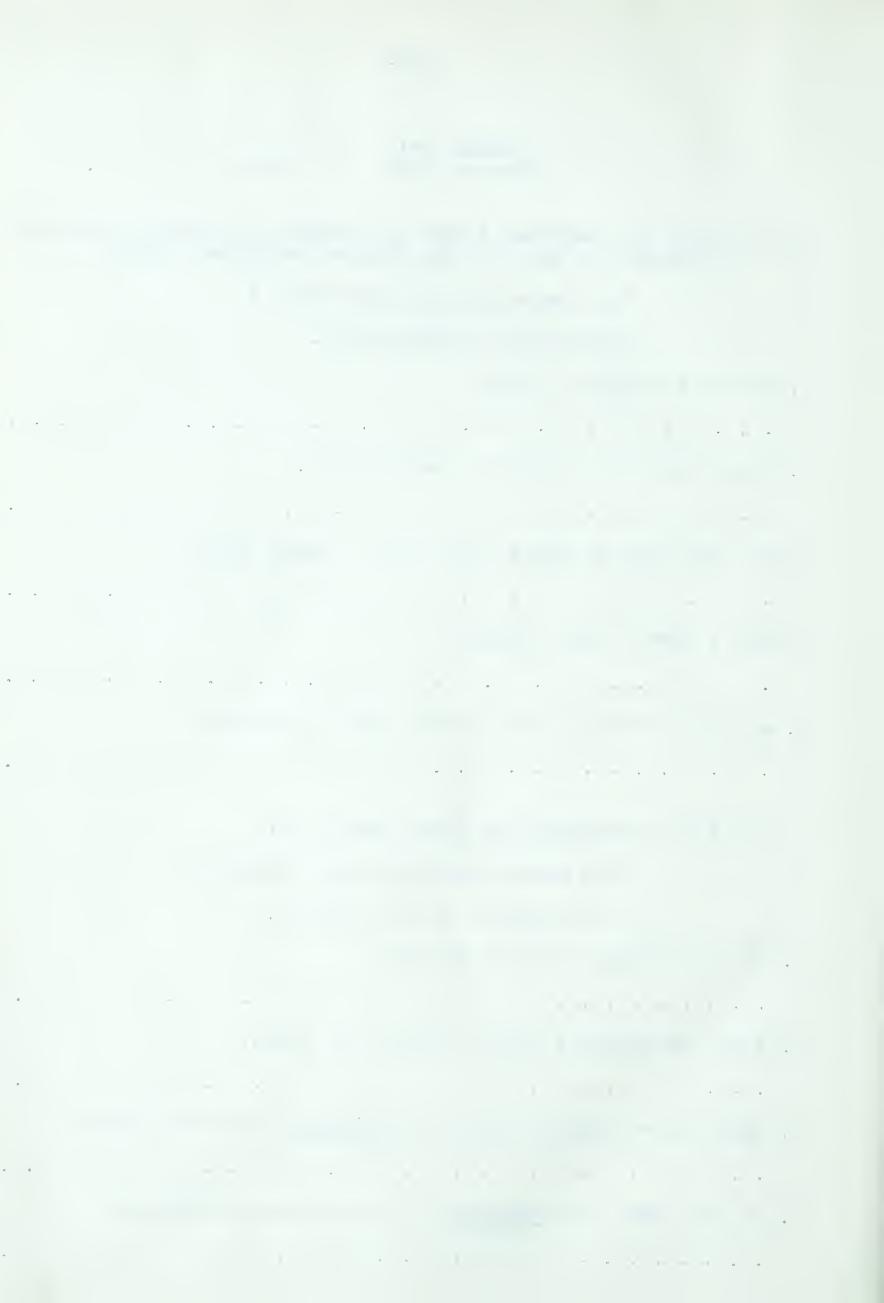

Aber nach ein Uhr fängt das Leben für sie erst wirklich an. Können Sie das verstehen? Denn dann hat Frau Gebhardt jede Minute etwas zu tun. Sie muss in die Stadt fahren und die Rechnung für den Reundfunk und das Telefon bezahlen. Auf der Post muss sie auch Briefmarken kaufen und einen Luft-postbrief aufgeben. Sie muss zum Rathaus und die Wasser-rechnung bezahlen. Aber sie kann nicht in ein Kino gehen. Das darf sie nicht. Denn das Kino fängt um drei Uhr an und hört erst um fünf Uhr auf. Aber schon um vier Uhr kommen auch ihr Mann von der Arbeit. Dann muss Frau Gebhardt zu Hause sein! Denn Mann und Kind wollen alle etwas zu essen haben; und Herr Gebhardt möchte nicht lange auf seine Frau warten.

Das Telefon läutet, aber es ist nicht für sie, es ist für Ida, ihre Tochter. Ida ist fünfzehn. Ida spricht eine ganze Stunde--sechzig Minuten--mit ihrer Freundin; das hört nicht auf! Um sieben Uhr kommt Karl Springer und holt sie ab. Springers wohnen gleich neben Gebhardts, und Ida kennt Karl schon seit vielen Jahren. Sie wollen zusammen ins Kino gehen. Karl ist nett, Herr und Frau Gebhardt haben nichts gegen ihn.

1. Was macht Frau Gebhardt nach ein Uhr?

   i) . . . .

   ii) . . . .

   iii) . . . .

2. Um wieviel Uhr kommen die Kinder aus der Schule?

   . . . .

3. Was macht Ida?

   . . . .

4. Wer ist Karl Springer?

   . . . .

5. Wann fängt das Kino an?

   . . . .

GERMAN 100
February 1960   Name . . . .

I.(a) Modify the sentence below to produce a new German sentence
      equivalent to each of the English sentences given:

"Ich lasse mir ein Haus bauen."

I am having a house built.

1. We are building a house.

. . . .

2. They would like to have a house built.

. . . .

3. Can you tell me where I can have a house built?

. . . .

4. May I have a house built?

. . . .

5. Are you having a house built, too, Mr. Busch?

. . . .

(b) Follow instructions given under (a):

"Ich mache eine Reise nach Europa."

I am taking a trip to Europe.

1. Who is taking a trip to Europe?

. . . .

2. They are taking a trip to Europe by plane.

. . . .

3. When are we going to take (use future) a trip to Europe?

. . . .

4. Do you wish (use wünschen) to take a trip to Europe?

. . . .

5. Why are we not taking a trip to Europe?

. . . .

II. Give a (short) German sentence in which you use correctly
the word(s) supplied:

1. seit

. . . .

2. gefallen

. . . .

3. sich setzen

. . . .

4. denn

. . . .

5. anfangen

. . . .

6. es gibt

. . . .

7. sitzen

. . . .

8. sondern

. . . .

9. gestern

. . . .

10. oder

. . . .

III (a) Read the following passage and answer in complete
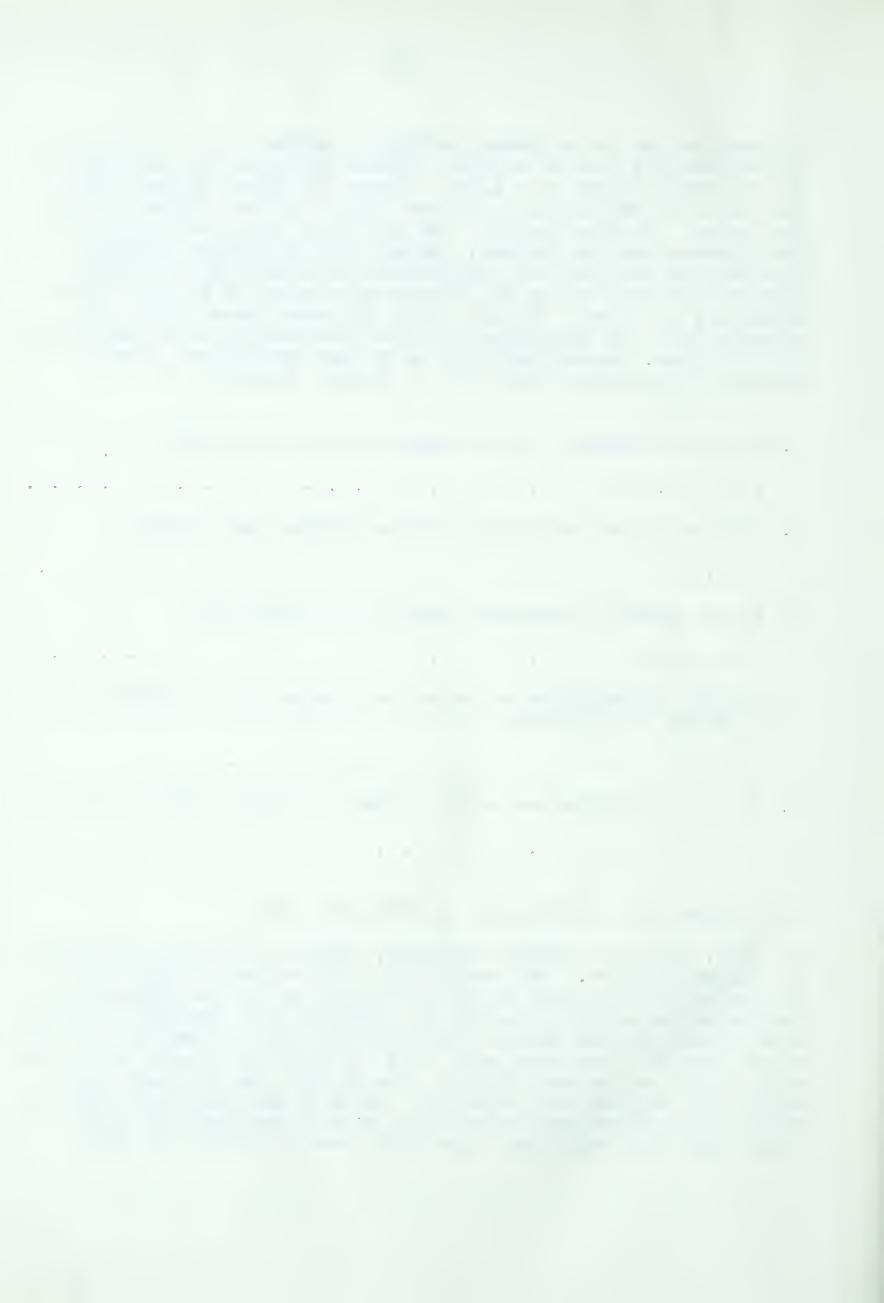German sentences the questions based on it:

In Amerika ist es im Süden gewöhnlich wärmer als im Norden.
In Deutschland ist es anders. Süddeutschland ist ein Hochland.
Die höchsten Berge, die Alpen, liegen im Süden Deutschlands.
Und in einem Bergland, das höher liegt, ist es kühler als in
der Ebene. Norddeutschland ist eine Tiefebene an den Küsten
der Nordsee und der Ostsee. Daher gibt es keinen grossen
Unterschied zwischen der Temperatur im Norden und im Süden.
Dagegen ist gewöhnlich die Wintertemperatur im Westen etwas
höher als im Osten. Warum? Weil die westlichen Winde die
wärmere Luft von Golfstrom her über Frankreich nach Westdeutsch-
land bringen. Ausserdem gibt es an den westlichen Küsten
Europas keine hohen Berge wie im Westen Amerikas.

1. Wo ist es wärmer, in der Ebene oder im Bergland?

. . . .

2. Gibt es an der westlichen Küste Europas hohe Berge?

. . . .

3. Wie heissen die höchsten Berge in Deutschland?

. . . .

4. Ist der Unterschied zwischen der Temperatur im Norden und
   im Süden sehr gross?

. . . .

5. Wo ist die Wintertemperatur höher, im Osten oder im Westen?

. . . .

(b) Follow the instructions given under (a):

Im Juni, wenn die Ferien anfangen, kommen die ersten Touristen
in Deutschland.an. Wer wenig Zeit hat und wer längere Zeit
in Deutschland bleiben will, der fliegt mit einem Flugzeug der
Lufthansa in wenigen Stunden von Neuyork nach Frankfut am Main
oder Düsseldorf am Rhein. Das ist sehr viel schneller als mit
einem Schiff. Wer aber mehr Zeit hat und etwas mehr Ruhe haben
will, fährt mit einem Schiff. Das bringt ihn in etwa einer
Woche von Neuyork nach Hamburg. An Bord des Schiffes lernt er
auch andere Menschen kennen, kann viel Vergnügen mit ihnen
haben und kann schlafen, lesen und essen, so viel er will.

1. Wann fangen die Ferien an?

. . . .

2. Warum fliegen viele Leute mit dem Flugzeug nach Deutschland?

. . . .

3. Wie reist man, wenn man etwas mehr Ruhe haben will?

. . . .

4. Wie lange dauert die Fahrt mit dem Schiff von Neuyork nach
   Hamburg?

. . . .

5. Was kann man an Bord des Schiffes machen?

. . . .